OUTLOOK *for the* BLIND

and THE TEACHERS FORUM

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JEANNE KEWELL AND A BLIND STUDENT (See page 215)

OUTLOOK *for the* BLIND

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AMERICAN FOUNDATION FOR THE BLIND

"A DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE BY THE BLIND"

JACOBUS TENBROEK, S. J. D.

WE, THE BLIND, have reached a moment in history. We stand on the threshold of a new era. What we make of it is up to us. There is motion in the world—the vital motion of profound change. As in the past man moved from primitive to social society, from the stone age to the steel age; man today is moving into the atomic age. This profound change is affecting all phases of society; its economy, its politics, its sociology. And, just as history is the record of man's events, so does man in his life make the events of history. Thus does change become what we make of it.

This past week recorded the anniversary of our great nation's struggle for independence. We, the blind, are today at the moment of our declaration of independence. Society will no longer permit us—even if we ourselves would choose so to do—to endure a subordinate and inferior, if not a colonial status. National independence in the modern world is not a matter of sovereign isolation, irresponsible self-sufficiency or unfettered action. It implies escape from private control to public control —integration into the international community with all its rights and responsibilities. So with the blind! Our declaration of independence is not a statement that we wish to become hermits or that we seek unsocial isolation. Exactly the opposite. Our declaration of independence is a claim to the same realm of personal choice and individual judgment as is the right of all other citizens. Our declaration of independence suggests release from unsocial isolation into social participation. Our declaration of independence implies nothing so much as the desire for full integration into the life of the community. Primitive society regarded the blind and otherwise handicapped as liabilities and left them to

The above speech was delivered by Dr. Jacobus tenBroek, president of the National Federation of the Blind, at the banquet held in connection with the annual convention of that organization in Chicago, July, 1950.

extinction. Even among the Greeks this was the belief and the practice. In a later age of humanitarianism, the blind, though still considered an unmixed social liability, were granted the right to live and to be protected. In this system of ward benevolence, there emerged a number of outstanding blind individuals to prove the blind capable of high attainment. These were the pioneers of the new era in the moment of which we now stand. This is the era of the integration of the blind into society as full-fledged members, economically, socially and ideologically.

This new era, this full membership of the blind in their communities, is far from completely arrived. Rather might it be described as an ideal, but one sufficiently tested to have proved its ultimate realizability. Many vestiges of the earlier conceptions remain, overlapping in an era where they have no place. It is far from universally conceded, for instance, that the blind are or may be social assets—or at least as much so as other people —rather than liabilities. There is still much of the protective and the custodial in society's treatment of the blind. In unhappy measure the general public still thinks of blindness as helplessness. We must break these chains of earnest pity that fetter us. We must overthrow the tyranny of kindness that blights our spirit and suffocates our initiative. We must relegate to the past these outmoded conceptions and all that they imply.

The National Federation of the Blind was organized to achieve security, equality and opportunity for the blind men and women of this country through an active program of mutual assistance, public education and legislative reform. Reduced to simplest terms, this is the organized demand of the blind for acceptance, not toleration; for brotherhood, not patronage; for access to the normal means of earning a livelihood, not charity; for equality of opportunity, not benevolent protection.

In this year of grace nineteen hundred and fifty, at this banquet tonight, we are celebrating the completion of ten years of existence of the National Federation of the Blind. A decade is not a long time in the history of an important cause. But it is a suitable span in which to judge our work, to test the progress made towards our goals.

Without itemizing the long list of specific legislative successes in the fields of social security, rehabilitation and placement of the blind and in the civil service, and without detailing the story of such other activities as White Cane Week and our own Opportunities Program, some overall conclusions might justifiably be stated. Since the founding of the National Federation ten years ago and because of it, the blind of the nation have gained a new position. No longer are the masses of disorganized blind men and women ignominiously ignored by public educational, welfare and rehabilitation agencies. No longer are they the easy prey of private charities, the unresisting objects of domination and manipulation by agencies ostensibly serving the blind and the submissive victims of political demagogues who would serve their own interests by exploiting the public's good will towards the blind. Since the National Federation came into existence, average payments to recipients of public assistance have more than doubled. The number of blind persons successfully rehabilitated and placed in remunerative employment has increased by more than two thousand per cent. The door to employment in the public service has been wedged open. A substantially greater number of blind students have been graduated from institutions of higher learning, professional colleges and trade schools. A measurable improvement in the public's understanding of the blind and their problems has occurred. In all of these areas our role has been considerable; in some determinative.

Our society, the American society in which we live, is more than merely organized society. It is a society of organization. The blind

have seen this pattern and have adjusted their methods to it. They too have organized —not as far and as fast as was to be hoped —but substantially nevertheless. They have created the National Federation of the Blind, a unified organization of state affiliates and individual memberships which extends into every state of the continental United States. Through it the blind themselves have taken a firm hand in guiding their own destinies. In founding the National Federation of the Blind, the blind found themselves.

So much for looking backwards. The end of a decade, too, is an appropriate time to look forward. Great as is the progress which has been made, it is a mere fraction of what is needed. I said at the outset that the blind have reached a moment in history; that the moment in which we now stand is the moment of a new era of the full participation of the blind in society. In the decade that lies ahead and in the indefinite future beyond that, our responsibility will be to undertake the fundamental task of adjusting all programs for the blind to the characteristics of that new era. This will involve a difficult job of analysis and creative application. The making of that analysis and application is the challenge that now confronts us.

Without presuming to supply final analysis or to pursue the analysis in detail, certain basic propositions come quickly to mind. They are these: 1. Integration into the economic life of the community is the forerunner and open sesame to all forms of community integration. Without it most men cannot utilize their capacities, develop their potentialities, or contribute to group progress. Without a job or a profession, most men will never become full and equal members of society. The new era of integration, accordingly, above all else, implies opportunity in the traditional American sense. 2. If this is true, then a sweeping new approach and a basic shift in emphasis is necessitated in practically all work for the blind. The charity approach, the custodial approach, the protective approach, the sheltered approach, even the humanitarian approach—all must give way to the new social approach centered around opportunity. This does not mean that the aged blind or those with other disabling defects should be abandoned. We must continue and intensify our struggle to see that they are supplied ever more adequately with the necessities of life generously understood and administered. It does mean, however, that even those programs which are primarily designed to relieve the distress of poverty and provide a basic security must be reevaluated and adjusted to the idea of opportunity. It does mean, moreover, that a new vigor and imagination must be infused into programs whose sole object is opportunity and many new programs devoted exclusively to that purpose must be created. 3. In the field of public assistance and social welfare, the new approach requires that every encouragement and the highest premiums be placed on the effort of recipients to get themselves off the relief rolls. It means that social legislation must cease to act on the degrading and false presumption that blind people are necessarily paupers, are necessarily incapable of deciding how they want to live their lives and are therefore wards of society released into the custody of the social worker. All of the devices of control and inhibition —such as the means test and individual need individually determined—which are built upon the foundation of that presumption must be abolished. Unfettered discretion and final judgment must be left to the recipient of public assistance as to how he shall spend his grant, where and how he shall live and what he shall do with his time and his future. Liberal exempt earnings and other income, generous provisions with respect to the ownership of property, especially readily negotiable personal property, of the relaxation of restrictions on savings and accumulation of investible capital must be the hallmarks of the new era in the field of public assistance. 4. In the

field of vocational rehabilitation and placement, even greater changes are demanded by the new approach. Without derogating in the slightest the tremendous progress already made, it yet must be obvious to all that the rehabilitation and placement work has proceeded with mincing step and groping tentativeness. If opportunity is the touchstone, then rehabilitation and placement must become a focal point of thought and effort. As it exists now, it must be improved; and many new features must be added.

The whole process of rehabilitation and placement must begin much earlier, must be carried on more effectively, and must be substantially broadened. The seven to ten year lag presently existing between onset of blindness and the time a blind person becomes known to the rehabilitation agency must be cut to as many months or less. Only thus can hopelessness, defeatism and physical disuse be prevented from taking their terrible toll. Moreover, this can be done by a vigorous program of case finding, based on active search by the rehabilitation agencies, rather than passive and frequently almost inert waiting for clients, on active solicitation of doctors and hospitals, and on activating public knowledge and awareness of the service needed and available.

Once the newly blinded person is found, orientation and adjustment resources must be utilized immediately. This is not the work of sighted people, however well intentioned and well trained they may be. Nor is it the work of persons who have no other virtue than their blindness. It is the work of persons who are themselves blind and who are in addition well adjusted and independently successful. The intimate personal, physical and psychological reorientation of the newly blinded is best brought about by the impact not of precept but of example, not of doctrine but of personality. It is not a part of guidance and counseling which, as presently conceived, is limited to the attempted detection of occupational aptitude.

Once the newly blinded person is discovered and an initial adjustment made, the next step in the total process of rehabilitation and placement should be the providing of training—training of any and every sort—to restore abilities, develop skills and release productive capacities. Such training again should take place preferably under the tutelage of qualified and experienced blind persons, unless it is of academic character when it should be taken in the regular schools and colleges. It should be under the control of the rehabilitation and placement agencies and never should be carried on in connection with sheltered shops. Such training together with guidance and counseling should be designed to help the recipient suceed in his interests as he determines them to be. Above all, it should not be strait-jacketed to any stereotype of blind occupations which the rehabilitation agencies might form.

In all of this the ultimate objective of placement in remunerative occupations and self-sustaining professions should not be lost sight of. Here again many more qualified blind placement officers must be hired, the country over, if this program is to succeed on a new and hitherto undreamed-of scale. Halting and scattered placement by the slow and arduous method of approaching employers on an *ad hoc* and individual basis should be discarded in favor of the systematic mobilization of employer groups and labor unions in the community. The potential of this technique is great but only if the organized blind in the community are willing to contribute active leadership. Thus and thus alone will the integration of the new era occur. 5. In miscellaneous other programs, the demands of the new approach are equally clear. We must fight as we never have before to remove all bars to employment, public and private, which are erected out of prejudice, mis-

understanding and just plain unwillingness to recognize facts. We must seek to establish credit facilities for those without collateral who desire to enter independent enterprise or who must have a supplement to rehabilitation funds currently available in order to get started. Money for readers and scholarships must be more generously available.

On all fronts and in all ways, we must throw our energy behind efforts to make the public aware of the implications of the new era for the blind; to blot out of the public mind the centuries-old conception of the blind as helpless, pitiable social liabilities; to substitute therefor an awareness that blindness is lack of sight, not ability; and to make it possible with this new awareness for blind people to help themselves become self-supporting and in every sense full members of the communities in which they live.

In a material sense this program of opportunities, this demand for adjustment to the new era can be justified in dollars and cents. A short period of expenditure for the liberation or restoration of productive capacity is far cheaper than a lifetime of public assistance payments.

But while it may readily be justified in financial terms alone, full membership in society on the part of the blind cannot thus be evaluated. No financial accounting can ever tabulate the personal rewards of recovered confidence and new-found independence, or the social dividends acquired in the fuller utilization of man power and the liberation of creative and productive capacity. Statistics convey little of the contribution in terms of citizen morale, community health and national well-being; nor do they suggest the greatest single argument in defense of our full community membership, which is that it restores to thousands of Americans every year their unalienable right to normal livelihood and normal life.

This then is our declaration of independence.

VISION THROUGH FORM

JON SCHUELER

When a man looks into the heart of an artist through comprehension of the artist's work, he often finds himself confronted with new worlds to explore, or with new means to obtain an understanding of himself.

The revelation of complex and sensitive beings in the New York showing of sculpture by visually handicapped people suggests an area of experience which can open new doors to artists and laymen, educators and students. Many, groping for a touchstone by which to more intimately understand themselves and their own relationships with their environment, will find a hint, a suggestion, or a sympathetic vibration in the forcefully modelled self portraits which dominate the show, or perhaps in the more delicate impact of the freely worked dolls and animals or the carefully formed fruit.

This exhibit was brought to New York by the American Foundation for the Blind after it had received high praise on the basis of

Mr. Jon R. Schueler, of Sausalito, California, is a professional writer. He became interested in the creative ability of the blind through his acquaintance with Miss Jeanne Kewell, who introduced the sculpturing technique to San Francisco's visually handicapped persons. Other reports by Mr. Schueler on this subject will be appearing in popular magazines.

its artistic merit from artists and critics at a previous San Francisco showing. It is made up of work by eleven persons who studied in a class conceived and conducted by Jeanne Kewell of the California School of Fine Arts and the San Francisco Center for the Blind.

For each of the students, chosen without regard to talent, artistic leanings, cleverness, or the like, this was the first attempt at sculpture of any kind. From the initial mixing of the clay with the grog, to the hollowing out of the models before firing, the artists themselves did all of the work, giving meaning to the form and substance as they evolved their own sense of purpose and responsibility. Instruction was limited to touching off the spark of enthusiasm which was bound to grow as the artist felt the freedom of creative effort.

In turn, the instructor was stimulated by the students. From observing the development of the artists, talking with them, learning of their attitudes and feelings, Miss Kewell began to sense the implications suggested by their activity.

The experience of these artists suggests that the visually handicapped sculptor has a number of advantages over the sighted one. Not only has he developed a more highly refined tactile awareness (perhaps the essence of the physical side of sculptural activity) with which to give form to what is possibly a more acutely sensitized inner world, but he has less of a temptation to work with purely surface, visual appeal. In the portraits, the artists were not just attempting surface representations of themselves, but were actually feeling and experiencing something about their own inner beings which became the essence of the sculptural statements.

Even those with partial vision removed their glasses when they worked. Rather than using their limited vision with difficulty, they relied on their non-visual powers of perception to give their work full form significance.

It is true of man, made up as he is of a complexity of strong and weak characteristics, that he must orient himself toward activities which will use his strong points to advantage, thus increasing his sense of potency and stature. Unlike many activities with which the blind are associated, sculpture frees the worker from dependence on the sighted person, and enables him to utilize the particular talents and abilities which give him his advantage.

Moreover, the very existence of blindness demands a complex tactile awareness of environment. The blind student, particularly if he would be taught sculpture from an early age in the blind schools, would be in immediate contact with forms which, in their interrelationships, make up his non-visual world. With such knowledge would come security, and with security a sense of emotional independence.

The experience of the exhibiting artists and the evidence of this show suggest that many forms of sculpture are open to the blind. If approached in a creative way, profitable exploration might be made with such media as soft stone, plastics, wire, sheet metal, and new materials the sculptors might discover for themselves. Whether the artist is working from life or imagination, he will find that there are many and varied materials which will give in to the spirit behind the hand.

It is possible that this exhibit, as it demonstrates the relation of the visually handicapped sculptor to his work, can unhook many a man from the horns of a creative dilemma. Actually, the *creating* of a plastic work of art need not be a visual process at all. Perhaps it is only the *seeing* of the finished piece that is a visual experience. Creating the work is in fact an inner experience somehow given form in external materials, and to the creator, whether blind or sighted, it is this experience which is dynamic and which incidentally gives dynamic qualities to his work.

GROUP DYNAMICS

A New Approach to Instruction and Its Practicability in the Education of the Blind

ELINOR H. LONG AND MAE DAVIDOW

Fifty years ago, in the era of the traditional school, the achievement of boys and girls was measured in terms of whether or not they had thoroughly memorized the innumerable quantity of facts that had been presented to them in the course of their school careers. There was no such thing in those days as guidance. When the children entered secondary school they chose the academic curriculum if their parents could afford to send them to college, or the commercial curriculum if their interests lay in that area, or else dropped into a general course if they did not expect to graduate or if they did not know what else to take. Many of them left school as soon as they were of an age to work. There was little to hold them in schools where they were required only to repeat in parrot-like fashion the facts of the subject matter which they were studying, and no one seemed to care if they dropped out of school entirely. The contents of the curricula were fixed and inflexible and followed in the tradition of an earlier generation. It was believed that if the children thoroughly memorized facts, their behavior and attitudes would fall into an acceptable pattern, and if they memorized procedures, they would develop skills for work performance. Psychologists have since discovered that there is little correlation between exposure to a verbal presentation of a theory of acceptable behavior and the displaying of acceptable conduct (1). Furthermore, since the curve of forgetting is approximately 67% in forty-eight hours, it is doubtful whether the amount of knowledge retained from this memorization process was great enough to warrant such emphasis on instructional technique (2).

Twenty years ago "progressive education" was asserting itself in nearly all parts of the country, rebelling against the traditional methods which emphasized strictly factual knowledge and introducing a new concept of "individual development." A special administration known as the guidance department was established in the schools for measuring, recording, and interpreting the interests and abilities of the students through personal interviews, testing programs of all sorts, and other devices. Each student was counseled in the selection of a plausible and practicable vocation and guided into the curriculum which best suited his interests, aptitudes, emotional adjustability, and economic status. The curricula offered by the schools were broadened through a system of electives, many of which were new areas of instruction, introduced to satisfy the demands of contemporary society. Within the courses of instruction all kinds of techniques were experimented with, as, for example, the plans which encouraged the student to work as an individual, performing as much work as he cared to complete and in as much time as he cared to spend. The "pro-

Miss Elinor H. Long is an instructor at Bergen Junior College, Teaneck, New Jersey, and is studying for a Ph.D. degree at Teachers College, Columbia University.

Miss Mae Davidow, a teacher at the Overbrook School for the Blind, conducted the experimental work described in the article.

gressive" schools recognized the important role played by motivation in the learning process, and thus made great effort to enrich the courses of instruction through the use of project techniques, visual aids, field trips, and the like. Class situations were made less formal through the encouragement of student participation, especially in discussion groups. Extra-curricular programs were introduced or made more extensive and every student in the school was generally expected to become a member of a club. Obviously this "individual" approach to education was an outgrowth of a change in philosophy, of a re-evaluation of the purposes of education. The "progressivists" aimed at developing "the whole child." They recognized that the human organism is capable of much more than memorization and that superior factual knowledge does not presuppose an individual's vocational or social success.

We can be grateful to the "progressivists" for many of their contributions, but, as we are gradually beginning to realize, the pendulum has swung too far to the left. We seem to have given many of our young people the impression that it is the individual alone who counts, whose desires must be satisfied (3). To them apparently a democracy is a form of government which permits individuals to have their own way—regardless of how other people are affected. But society operates upon a restricted type of freedom in order to protect the rights of all its members. The strictly egocentric individualist cannot possibly exist in such a society or chaos will result (4). During the rise of Nazism and Fascism we saw manifold examples of what can happen when an individual attempts to satisfy his own personal ambition. Conversely we also witnessed the defeat of individualism by the superior cooperative strength of the allied nations. A democratic society, therefore, functions most effectively when it comprises individuals working together toward the same goal, with each person actively contributing something, however small, toward the common effort. Democracy is a give-and-take proposition. Its success will be proportionate to the percentage of those participating in a common endeavor. Those who do not participate are actually cheating their fellows of contributions which could be valuable.

The role which education must play in a democratic society is that of training children to become active cooperative contributors (5). We have enough "talk democrats" and "consent democrats," but we need more "work democrats," (6) who will be able to make decisions on the basis of data accumulated, who will work together in the solution of common problems, and who will accept and discharge responsibility. These are the kind of citizens we must build if we are to insure the durability of our American way of life.

We have already discussed the weaknesses in technique of both "traditional" and "progressive" education. If society demands that our schools produce cooperative individuals, then we must create learning situations which require cooperation. If society demands active participation in a group project, then we educators must provide group projects for our students where each one is motivated to contribute. If people are to act in a certain way, they must be made to feel a need for that behavior and be given the opportunity to express themselves acceptably in a situation that is as near life-like as possible. We cannot expect an individual who has been encouraged to rely entirely upon his own resources to respond favorably to a situation in which there is interdependence between members of the group (7). Therefore, modern educators have recently begun to experiment with group dynamics as a more logical approach to changing behavior.

Let us examine the educational values of 1) making decisions based on facts, data, or information; 2) working together in the solution of common problems; and 3) accepting and discharging responsibility (8). Certainly

the first of these skills can be developed through the individualized or scientific method, but thereby educators are failing to teach the additional values of working with others in the solution of problems, and of doing something together for the benefit of the group as a whole. It is chiefly in the other two areas that we have failed thus far to achieve the desired results, simply because we have not approached these problems from the group standpoint. We can teach the child to make decisions from data and at the same time create a setting where he will need to work with others in the attainment of these decisions. If we use this process over a long period of time and apply it in all the instructional areas, the behavior we wish to encourage will be the by-product of the learning.

The process of problem-solving in the application of group dynamics is an outgrowth of the Gestalt or organismic theory of psychology, which asserts that learning occurs as a result of the organism's attempt to satisfy his needs, urges or drives within a complex environment. These are by no means stable factors but change as the situation varies. However, through careful analysis we can concede that our general behavior is modified by certain basic needs. The first are organic—i.e., related to the physical structure of the organism itself—and include food, sex, adjustment to metabolism, and so on. The second are in the area of self—the need to belong, to be accepted by a group. This we call status. The third are social—the organism needs to extend his status toward others. Each organism has these basic drives to satisfy, but because of individual differences no one organism will work in exactly the same way for the same satisfactions (9). The goals of education are necessarily sociological, since we are training individuals to take their place in society. Consequently we must concern ourselves chiefly with the social needs of our children (10).

In the satisfying of any of these basic needs, the organism becomes confronted with a series of problems or obstacles which must be resolved before his goal can be attained. Learning takes place in the solution of problems, and if they can be solved cooperatively, we are working toward several of the objectives of education at the same time. In cooperative problem-solving, research has shown that the group working together must be of small size, it must consist of individuals who are interested in the same phase of a given problem and who bring with them a variety of skills and experiences, and it must be compatible (11). The teacher who is applying the theory of group dynamics to her classroom situation has at her disposal a very simple measuring technique for helping her to determine which students would work together best toward the solution of a determined problem. This is known as sociometric testing, and involves analysis of interpersonal relationships which exist at a given time among members of a given group. Once the teacher has assigned the students to the subgroups in which they are to work, her role is "situation management." She must guide them toward the solution of the main problem (12). The classroom then becomes a workshop in which a democratic atmosphere prevails. Each subgroup retires to a different section of the room, arranging their seats so as to permit better interaction amongst themselves. They then discuss the information which they have (or which can be acquired) and decide upon a plan of action which will lead to a plausible solution of the total problem. Within every subgroup there is ample opportunity for each individual to contribute his ideas and skills and to practice leadership, as well as to make decisions based on data, work with others, and assume and discharge responsibility (13).

In this group dynamics approach, contrary to the philosophy of the "progressivists," the teacher must never lose control of the stu-

dents, despite the fact that they are organized into subgroups or committees. For in the modification of behavior the teacher is the leading change agent. Her method of presenting the material to the class is very important. If she is autocratic and tells the children what to do and how and when to do it, or when not to, they tend to become more and more submissive and less and less able to think for themselves. In the extreme, concurrent aggression may develop on the part of the children and there may be out-and-out rebellion. If on the other hand the teacher employs *laissez faire,* permitting the class to do what they please, children tend to become hostile to each other. Some become listless and others withdraw completely within themselves, thereby creating an autocratic atmosphere dominated by the leading bully of the group. In a democratic atmosphere, however, where an adult authority sets up the pattern, but where the general plans were formulated by all, there is much less aggression among the members, much more planning and working together. The children benefit from making decisions themselves on the basis of data and from working with each other in groups, and they are more likely to fulfill the responsibilities which they agree to accept.

Educators of the blind are generally slow to accept changes in educational philosophy. Perhaps they have an excuse in that experimentation involving the change of textbooks and the acquisition of special equipment is costly. Therefore, they continue on with older methods until the public schools have ceased to experiment along a particular line and have accepted new techniques as valuable for educational procedure. Unfortunately, however, by the time schools for the blind have revised their policies, the public schools are still one jump ahead of them, introducing still newer methods and techniques. Logically, of course, this criticism is more valid for the residential schools than for the day classes for the blind located in the public schools where experiments are constantly being carried on.

We are not suggesting changes in the courses of study themselves, however. None of the textbooks now in use will need to be replaced; no new equipment will have to be purchased for the schools. We are simply recommending a new methodology of instruction, which can be applied to any curricula. The group approach described in the preceding pages of this paper could be used easily in classes for blind children. The very size of the groups—seldom above fifteen students, and more frequently eight or ten—lends itself to the effectiveness of this technique. Among the student body, especially in residential schools where the children not only attend classes together but live together as well, cooperative activities are already a common practice. Furthermore, teachers of the blind are generally at an earlier stage of the child's development alerted to the implications which his handicap may have in relation to his eventual adjustment to the seeing world. Consequently, any technique for facilitating the change of pupil behavior should elicit favorable response from them.

In all fairness, we must agree that the blind do not differ from the normally seeing, except for the fact that their handicap creates many more problems of adjustment. Society tends to reject that which does not conform to its standards, and blindness itself is a deviation, but when coupled with undesirable behaviorisms or attitudes will isolate the individual to an even greater extent.

A recent survey conducted among agency personnel for the purpose of determining the chief weaknesses of blind employees furnishes us with sufficient evidence that the change of behavior should receive greater emphasis in our educational planning. The survey also showed that our instruction has not been effective enough in some areas and that we have occasionally created situations from

which misunderstandings or misconceptions have evolved. The entire list of the significant findings of this survey is as follows: (15)

Weaknesses of Former Pupils as Seen by Agency Personnel

Poor travel skill
Poor social adjustment away from school
Poor posture
Poor grooming
Lack of social experience
Lack of work experience
Poor attitude as shown by
  a. Unwillingness to take suggestions
  b. Too high an opinion of own work
  c. Too egocentric
  d. Unrealistic attitude in approach to job and life situations
  e. Infantilism
  f. Apparent lack of drive
  g. Lack of initiative
  h. Lack of vocational planning
  i. Feeling that the blind are owed a living
  j. Slight sense of obligation
Weak basic employment skills
Uncorrected blindisms
Inability to use simple tools
Lack of practical knowledge of eye condition
Lack of hobbies
False conception of production rate
Insufficient amount of tangible experience
Poor etiquette
Poor cosmetic appearance
Inability to sign name
Lack of job information
Insufficient knowledge of laws, services and the like pertaining to the blind
Poor basic skills (reading, writing, figuring, spelling)
Poor training of those going to college for learning through listening
Poor hand skill training in use of tools (girls)

Naturally, anyone experienced in the field of education of the blind will make excuses for some of these weaknesses on the basis that they are unavoidable results of the handicap (16). But we cannot dismiss our obligation as easily as that; for allowances are not made in the social and vocational worlds into which our students will graduate. Our administrators must examine the curricular offerings in terms of the three values of education which we have stated earlier in this paper and inaugurate new methods by which to attain them. We must no longer point with pride to the phenomenal success of what amounts to a very small percentage of our graduates, or to the fact that of the 3,033 students who have been graduated from our schools within the past twenty-five years, at least 2,098—better than 69%—are employed full-time (17). No matter how many of our graduates are employed today, the fact remains that it is this very group which is now experiencing attitudinal rejection or prejudice. On the basis that experiments in the group approach have thus far been successful, and also taking into consideration that the methods of this approach are in keeping with the demands of democratic society, we believe that educators of the blind would find cooperative problem-solving a valuable technique for their purposes.

In our discussion to this point we have attempted to give a brief outline of the weaknesses of "traditional" and "progressive" education and of the demands which society makes on the schools in the training of desirable citizens. We have explained how the most logical approach to the teaching of cooperative activity and leadership is, in the opinion of many modern psychologists and educators, that of group dynamics. This theory stems from Gestalt psychology, which maintains that no learning is possible except through motivation by the attempt to satisfy a basic need. Educators, of course, are primarily concerned with sociological goals, since the school learning situation and living itself are essentially group situations. Next we examined the principles upon which the application of group dynamics operates, in-

cluding the roles played by students and teacher, and the need for a democratic versus an autocratic or *laissez-faire* atmosphere. At this point we discussed the disinclination of educators of the blind to experiment with new methods or techniques because of the expense which might be involved should the system prove impractical, but we pointed out that the group approach is only a change in methodology, not in equipment. It is easily applicable to classes for the blind, and in fact is an approach which would greatly benefit the blind because of various factors in their adjustment. Numerous articles in the professional publications express the need for more attention to the improvement of the behavior of the blind within specific areas; but none have approached the problem from the standpoint of the group. Rather, the suggestions have been mostly in the field of personal and individual guidance. From the information which the committee on the literary course of study and vocational guidance of the American Association of Instructors of the Blind received from the agency personnel, we can deduce that the methods which we have been using have not been sufficiently effective.

Because this material we have been presenting may sound like pure educational theory to our more practical-minded administrators, we shall now attempt to illustrate the mechanics and application in setting up a unit of work in a classroom in a school for the blind where one instructor is experimenting with the new approach.

Practical Application

Miss D. teaches occupational guidance at the Overbrook School for the Blind. Her class consists of twelve freshmen—ten boys and two girls—and meets on the average of three hours a week. Dissatisfied with the response shown by her previous groups, Miss D., a graduate student majoring in group dynamics at Temple University, decided this year to experiment with the technique of problem-solving cooperative endeavor.

The first step was to select the area in which the group would work. Miss D. was familiar with the report of the weaknesses of blind persons engaged in vocations and felt that if the group could be made aware of these general shortcomings pupils might be motivated to setting up goals for themselves to counteract these criticisms. She began by reading the list of weaknesses to the class. There was a group discussion of each point, and an assignment was made that each student should select one point for further elaboration on his own. When the class returned for its next meeting, the papers were read orally, and then one student requested that the whole list be dictated so that the class could obtain a more complete picture of the problem area. The next step was the dividing of the class into "buzz" groups of four students each to determine what the group goal should be in terms of an action-pattern. After considerable discussion each "buzz" group presented its suggestions to the entire class, and after more general discussion they chose for their problem area, "How Can I Better Prepare Myself for a Vocation?"

Miss D. explained that in order to attain the main objective there were smaller problems to be solved, and "buzz" groups were again set up to determine what sub-problems could be recognized. When the entire group came together again they had lists of sub-problems, which they discovered corresponded in many respects to the weaknesses which Miss D. had presented to them earlier. The next procedure was to help the class state the sub-problems in terms of socially desirable action-patterns. Through general class discussion, the sub-problems were restated to the satisfaction of the group, assuming the form of an action-pattern as follows: how to get more work experience, how to secure basic employment skills, how to use simple tools, how to get a proper conception

of production rate, how to procure a sufficient amount of tangible experience, how to obtain better job information, how to secure better hand skill training in the use of tools (girls), how to obtain sufficient knowledge of the laws and services pertaining to the blind, and how to improve travel skill.

It was now time to structure the class into work-study groups. The "buzz" groups had been chosen without particular regard to the skills, interests, or compatibility of their members, and were satisfactory for discussing the content and sequence of the problem area. However, the more complex the patterns with which a group is working and the longer the time required for the execution of the task, the more importance attaches to the interpersonal factors existing within the group. As explained earlier in this paper, sociometric analysis is the best existing method for determining work companions. Therefore, Miss D. gave her students a work-companion test, and also asked them to submit the four sub-problems which were of greatest interest to them and of which they seemed to feel the greatest need. From the results of the sociometric test and also through her observations of student behavior in relation to the other members of the class, Miss D. was able to arrive at the most promising combinations of four students, and the sub-problems were divided accordingly:

Group I—Getting more work experience, Securing basic employment skills, Learning to use simple tools;

Group II—Getting a proper conception of production rate, Procuring a sufficient amount of tangible experience, Obtaining sufficient job information;

Group III—Securing better hand skill training in the use of tools (girls), Obtaining sufficient knowledge of laws and services for the blind, Improving travel skill.

The class then returned to their assigned groups and elected their chairmen. Meanwhile Miss D. had been making arrangements for readers to come in to read to the groups at assigned times. In this way the same information was made available to all the members working in the same problem areas. At the next meeting Miss D's concern was the approach for showing the class the procedures that had been involved in delineating the relationship of the sub-problems to the whole problem. This step is necessary in order to prevent the students from losing sight of the main objective in their efforts to solve the sub-problems with which they are dealing. She pointed out that when the class was acting as the total group and was trying to determine the sub-parts of the ultimate goal, they had applied a specific methodology. This was then analyzed. First they had recognized a need for better preparing themselves for a vocation. Then they anticipated the difficulties they would meet before reaching that goal. Then they had to find the means of resolving those difficulties, and this was done by collecting data and information from various sources in order to make their decisions, discussing the information with the rest of the group, analyzing it, and weighing it to the best of their ability. The classroom then became a laboratory in which the work-study groups were set up for the purpose of applying these techniques to the interpretation of the sub-problem areas. Miss D. then circulated among the small groups, checking their progress, and guiding them, and contributing her skills and experiences when necessary. She helped each work-study group arrive at a tentative list of activities which would lead them to a solution of their particular problems and to select from this tentative list those best suited to their particular problem solution. These tentative plans were then submitted by each group to the class as a whole and were discussed and criticized.

Miss D. was then confronted with the matter of how to assist the students to ac-

quire the information, insights and skills necessary for their problem solution. She recognized the fact that since the members of the class were working in different areas a general discussion would be impractical because of the time element and also because there would be slight variations in the way each problem would be attacked. Therefore the work-study groups were again set up, and Miss D. helped each one to arrive at several tentative hypotheses for their own use and to select the specific sources of information needed. This done, the class resumed session, and Miss D. instructed them in the techniques of extracting from information the facts most pertinent for the solution of their problems. After they returned to their small groups, Miss D. helped them evaluate the validity as well as the applicability to their tentative hypotheses of the facts gathered. Then the students told what they would do in certain situations, in order to test the validity of the hypotheses. Miss D. pointed out to them that if some of their ideas did not prove satisfactory in the opinion of all of the work-study group, it might be because they did not have sufficient information on that particular topic. She also explained that some ideas might be entirely invalid and should therefore be rejected.

When the groups had finally arrived at definite plans of activities to be followed, these were brought before the whole class for approval. The action-pattern devised for improving travel skills was violently opposed by other members of the class and had to be reconstructed. Finally, however, all the plans were accepted.

It is impossible in this brief paper to outline in detail the complete procedures followed in each of the work groups or even in all three problems on which each group worked. Therefore we shall limit our illustration to the progress of the students interested in improving travel skill.

Sub-problem—How to Improve Travel Skills

I. Difficulties
   1. Crossing streets
   2. Avoiding obstacles
   3. Finding direction and locating specific places
   4. Asking people for assistance

II. Information on how to overcome difficulties
   1. Interviews with successful blind people who have overcome this handicap; consideration of different devices used
   2. Interviews with representatives of agencies in regard to need for good travel skill
   3. Reading of articles in professional magazines on this topic
   4. Interviews with employers now employing blind personnel

III. Following group discussion, tentative list made of activities leading to solution of problem (improving travel skill)
   1. Crossing streets
      a. Listen for sound of traffic
      b. Cross when others are crossing
      c. Ask if in doubt
   2. Avoiding obstacles
      a. Listen for cues
      b. Always proceed cautiously
      c. Use guidance device—dog, cane, others
   3. Finding direction and locating specific places
      a. Review route with someone before trying it alone
      b. Recall cues: turns, landmarks, irregularities in pavement, sounds usually heard in same places each time, etc.
   4. Asking for assistance
      a. Be polite
      b. Accept aid if someone offers
      c. Do not try to conceal blindness

IV. Final conclusion—group feels no traveling should be done alone without some kind of travel device because of dangers involved. Present this view verbally to class. Decision refuted after much discussion. Attitude of group reveals a prejudice which subgroup interprets as an unwillingness to confess blindness.

V. Group plans new method for convincing class of need for the use of guidance devices. Compose skit and arrange for visit to the class of teacher of orientation. Summary of skit:

> Blind person goes downtown to apply for job. Not skilled in the use of the cane, but carries one. Experiences several embarrassing incidents that are described in detail and which disturb him emotionally. Finally arrives at employment office half an hour late. Also is jittery and untidy. Sees executive. Executive refuses job and makes unfair generalizations about the blind as a group.

After skit, orientation teacher arranges to take group out individually for demonstration.

VI. Class discussion. Group recognizes need for skilled use of travel devices—a valuable asset for getting and keeping a job. Project accepted.

It had become evident to Miss D. that the students were receiving considerable satisfaction from the cooperative problem approach, and also that they were learning socially acceptable patterns of behavior, as well as the subject matter required for the course. The students were beginning to show signs of interest in related problems—especially in the area of social guidance. Some of the students who had not been in favor of the group procedure were telling other members of the class that in order to be better prepared for a vocation they felt a great need for social and personal improvement.

On the basis of such observations of the pupil response, Miss D. felt that her first attempt at problem solving had been successful. However, evaluation yet remained. The tests which we have at present aim at the evaluation of the mastery of subject matter. In the group dynamics approach we are also interested in measuring change of behavior. Here again Miss D. turned to the area of sociometric testing. She had the class take a supplementary test in work companions and also a friendship test. The general results proved to be satisfactory.

From this practical illustration of the application of group dynamics to a given subject matter area, it is evident that students engaged in cooperative problem solving endeavors will enjoy a richer learning experience. For blind children, whose adjustability to society depends upon the extent of their wholehearted participation in a variety of activities, learning to work for the good of a group and not just for one's own individual benefit is a very valuable experience. The blind child will also become a citizen of that ideal democracy for which educators are striving.

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HARVEY D. GIBSON DIES

The American Foundation for the Blind lost a warm friend with the passing on September 11 of Harvey D. Gibson, for many years president of the Manufacturers Trust Company. Mr. Gibson had been a member of the Foundation's Board of Trustees since 1927, and for twenty-five years National Treasurer of the Helen Keller Endowment Fund. He was an intimate friend of Miss Keller and his interest and financial advice were most valuable in building up this fund.

Mr. Gibson was an international figure in banking circles, having become, at 34, the youngest bank president in New York. Notwithstanding his devotion to finance he found time for civic and humanitarian services, particularly with the Red Cross. He served as commissioner to France during World War I, and subsequently directed all Red Cross operations throughout Europe. Soon after America's entry into World War II, he accepted the post of commissioner to Great Britain and Western Europe, which he held until May, 1945. He was national chairman, in 1946 and 1947, of the Red Cross fund campaign. General Eisenhower presented an engraved plaque to Mr. Gibson as an expression of gratitude from the American armed forces, and the banker also received the President's Medal for Merit, the country's highest award for civilian service.

Mr. Gibson served New York in many ways. During the depression years, he assumed the chairmanship of the Emergency Unemployment Relief Committee, and in 1936 he headed the Citizens Emergency Flood Relief Committee, which raised funds for flood sufferers in New England and the Middle West. In 1939 and 1940 he was chairman of the board of the corporation that conducted the New York World's Fair.

UNESCO CONFERENCES WISH CONTINUANCE OF ESTABLISHED BRAILLE POLICY

SIR CLUTHA MACKENZIE

THE ACCEPTANCE on June 13th by the Unesco General Conference of the recommendations, passed by the international meeting on braille uniformity in March, marks the end of the first phase of the World Braille study. This affords an occasion to give a simple account of its objective in technical journals devoted to blind welfare. Our friends of the public press, in their enthusiasm for highlighting a "human story," have printed some rather startling interpretations. Quite naturally, as laymen, their comprehension of braille is inclined to be foggy, but it would be a little ungallant of us if we did not accept their versions in good humor. In contrast to this "highlighting" there is nothing fundamentally new in the principles advocated by the two Unesco conferences, nothing revolutionary, nothing but a deep loyalty to Louis Braille's original symbols. The Unesco terms of reference were modest and practical:

> "To study the World Braille situation .... with a view to agreeing on certain international principles which would allow the greatest degree of uniformity in Braille and would improve its rationalisation and develop its extension."

In their recommendations, the Unesco conferences followed the old path trodden before them by many workers for the blind and by the international congresses of 1878, 1902 and 1911. They asked that the rationalisation and extension should be achieved by a return to this path by those who had strayed from it.

If world uniformity were to be extended, it was clearly logical that it could be done only on the basis of adhering to Louis Braille's original root. His signs for letters, numerals and punctuation marks acquired long ago what we have called "traditional values" with all the strength which long custom gives, together with the historic sanctity with which his invention endows them. Beyond that, even if there had been a case for new values for his signs, difficulties of finance, sentiment and accumulated knowledge would make it unthinkable that the large libraries in European braille should be rendered worthless. Various representations were made to Unesco conferences regarding improvements in methods of uniformity in such fields as musical notation, mathematics, the representation of the classical languages and so on; but any changes here would only come about as the result of agreement between representative experts from the countries concerned. The only immediate action contemplated in the field of European brailles is in the calling of a regional conference to discuss the question of arriving at single systems of contractions for Spanish and Portuguese brailles.

India Accepts Unesco's Recommendations

It will be recalled that Unesco undertook this task at the request of the Government of India where, for fifty years, debate had swayed this way and that as to which principle should be used in adapting braille to her many

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languages. A number of independent workers in scattered posts had applied the system to local languages under a variety of principles, no fewer than eight conflicting adaptations being in use. It was clear that, while this state of things persisted, no extensive printing nor educational programme could be embarked upon. One school of thought advocated a system which would give internal uniformity only; the other, a system which would merge Indian uniformity with traditional braille, leading to the ultimate goal of world uniformity. The government felt that this latter course presented a possibility, and asked Unesco to call together authorities in the fields of braille, linguistics, phonetics, education of the blind and braille publication to give a considered verdict. Their judgment was that a uniform world braille was not only practicable but desirable. They recommended ways and means of achieving this, of ironing out a number of departures from established principles and methods by which uniformity and coordination could be preserved in the future.

Sitting on June 17th and 18th, the Expert Braille Committee of the Government of India accepted the recommendations in principle; thus reinforcing the unanimous acceptance by the Unesco General Conference.

Future Steps

This has paved the way for the second and final phase now made possible by further generous financial provision. It covers the holding of regional conferences, the making of technical studies, the preparation of an authoritative text book on braille usage and the setting up of a small World Braille Council.

The Meaning of Uniformity to Asia and Africa

Parallel conditions to those in India existed also in China and the countries using Arabic script. To appreciate the state of affairs in Asia we must turn our minds back to the days when Louis Braille's allocation of signs to particular letters was being sharply challenged. Would it not be better to have a cell two dots high instead of three, should not signs be allotted on the principle of frequency of recurrence of letters, might not an eight-dot cell be better than a six-dot one, and so on? Wordy wars were waged, in some cases for many years, but in due course these were settled by the rebels returning to brailles stemming from the original French root. Most of the Oriental and African braille adaptations adhered to it as far as the range of cardinal Latin values allowed; but, as many of their alphabets contain from thirty-four to eighty characters, there were insufficient traditional letter or sound values to meet their needs. They had, therefore, to resort to arbitrary selection for the balance, with the natural result that in this field uniformity is almost totally lacking. Briefly, the result of the Unesco studies is the endorsement of established principles and the planning of measures to extend them so that they may satisfactorily embrace the wider range of letters and sound values existing in Oriental and African languages and scripts. Perhaps we can best illustrate this rationalisation by the following examples: Before rationalisation began, the simple R sound was represented by dots 1-2-3-5 in French; 1-2-5 in Arabic; 1-2-4-5-6 in Hindi; 2-5-6 in Bengali; 1-2-5-6 in Telugu and 1-2-4-5 in Chinese Mandarin. The original R dots are now increasingly taking the place of the other forms. As an example of the sounds beyond the range of the cardinal Latin letters, many Oriental and African languages have, in addition to the ordinary N, a single letter for the sound of NG as in English "singer", German "Ding", and Spanish "cinco". As a sound, too, it is common to many unwritten tribal languages and thus calls for a particular braille sign to represent it wherever it occurs. The designers of brailles for about eight languages, working independently, happen to have se-

lected dots 3-4-6 for it, so that this may become its traditional symbol.

To those versed in braille matters, there is little need to stress the value of rationalisation save to say that this value in Oriental and African countries is perhaps even higher than in Europe. In both those continents, owing to the paucity of literature and especially of technical works in their own tongues, most of those who pass to higher education must learn a second language, and often a European one. An Urdu-speaker, for instance, will take his early education in his mother tongue, but, if he is to be a scholar, he will want to read the Persian poets in the original and to study his Koran in Arabic, while he will learn English to give him access to the vast reservoirs of literature in that language and for commercial purposes. There are such situations, too, as in Ceylon, where three languages, Sinhalese, Tamil and English, are in everyday use in the school and among the people, and Malaya with four everyday languages, Malay, Chinese, Tamil and English. This multilingualism of the East has its special bearing on braille uniformity.

Science and Practical Experience

In the task of rationalising and extending braille uniformity beyond the present scope of traditional signs, considerable use will be made of the framework provided by the phonetic alphabet of the International Phonetic Association. The purposes of this alphabet and of uniform World Braille are fundamentally different. The former has been designed as a standard yardstick for the scientific investigation and recording of the sounds employed in human speech; the latter, for the production, in uniform braille signs, of counterparts of the alphabets of existing languages. The phonetic alphabet represents the sounds of speech; World Braille, the sounds of letters. Despite this distinction, both have much ground in common as to what is straightforward, presenting no technical difficulty, and also in the field of rare and peculiar sounds, letters and usages for which special provision has to be made. The sciences of philology, phonetics and linguistics, together with a century's practical experience with braille in all the continents, place us in a position now where we can apply this knowledge to our advantage, so that book production and education of the blind may proceed with the least hindrance and the maximum economy. It is hoped, too, that this study may save a repetition of some of those unfortunate battles of the kind which have handicapped the progress of the blind in the past.

APPOINTMENT

Mr. Alton G. Kloss, recently appointed superintendent of the Western Pennsylvania School for the Blind, has been director of admissions and placement at Thiel College, Greenville, Pa., since 1947. He was graduated from Westminster College and is a candidate for a doctoral degree at the University of Pittsburgh. His interest in the education of the blind was stimulated a year and a half ago, when the twin boys born to his wife were found to be sightless. Friends of the blind everywhere will wish him success in this field to which he has decided to devote his life.

RETIREMENT

Educators of the blind throughout the country have learned with regret of the retirement of Bradley S. Joice, for the past twenty-eight years superintendent of the Western Pennsylvania School for the Blind. Mr. Joice was formerly a member of the Board of Trustees of the American Foundation for the Blind, and served faithfully for many years as secretary of the American Association of Instructors of the Blind. His services and influence will be greatly missed, not only in his own state, but in work for the blind nationally. We hope to have an article about him for the next issue of the *Outlook*.

HOME TEACHING IN SOUTH DAKOTA

HOWARD H. HANSON

THE HOME TEACHING PROGRAM for the state of South Dakota had its formal inception August 15, 1949, when I began working for the State Department of Social Security, Service to the Blind. Previous to this date, no home teaching was offered by any organization in the state. The school for the blind (established in 1900) was the only source of training in home industries for the adult blind. The Service to the Blind conducted two summer sessions of home industry training before the home teaching program began last fall.

The state of South Dakota incorporates some 77,000 square miles of area, with a population of approximately 600,000 people. The Service to the Blind has 650 visually handicapped persons on its register, of whom approximately 180 are of the Sioux Indian tribes. We have one city of 50,000 and five others with over 10,000 people. The major industry of the state is agriculture, both intensive farming and ranching, with degrees of diversified farming in between. Thus the placement of blind people in industry in this state is at a very low rate, while self-employment is encouraged to the utmost.

Home teaching in South Dakota presents many problems to a visually handicapped teacher. The state, as is obvious, is sparsely populated. The teacher must spend much of his time traveling from one pupil to another. The mode of travel at present ranges from train to bus to private or state car to actual foot travel. It often taxes one's ingenuity to obtain transportation to some areas of the state which are not served by a scheduled train or bus. Truckers, mail carriers, and salesmen all provide a source of transportation to these remote areas. It is my contention that one can get anywhere if one tries hard enough. Some of the pupils have their seeing friends or relatives call for the teacher at the nearest depot. One client drove eighteen miles to town for an interview in a mutual friend's living room.

One might ask, "Well, why have a visually handicapped home teacher when the travel problems are so great?" This question can be answered by the following illustration: One of the clients was a man operating a small automobile repair shop with the assistance of his fourteen-year-old son. It was an investigatory call and the home teacher received nothing but blasphemous remarks about all welfare agencies. The man had been dealt with harshly by one of these agencies during the depression of the thirties. As the interview progressed, it worked in very nicely to tell him that the home teacher couldn't see either. The man's attitude changed immediately, and when the teacher left, he was very friendly. The incident was forgotten, but two months later at the annual state fair the man made a point of looking up the teacher in the Service to the Blind booth. He felt that here was someone who understood the problems he was facing.

The program of instruction in South Dakota is different from that followed in some other states. The distances are so great that a project is taught almost completely in one

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visit. In other words, the home teacher stays with one pupil until the pupil has a sufficient grasp of the subject to be able to work it out entirely for himself. This may take from two hours to a week. At the present time, the home teacher tries to make the rounds once every two months with refresher courses, new crafts, and supervision. Braille students are given instruction until they have a good foundation and then they work by themselves until the next visit is possible.

The home teaching program of South Dakota includes the usual line of services: social work with the individual, his family and community; household aids and personal care; academic items such as braille, typing and pencil writing; foot travel and orientation; and a craft program for home industries. The state does not sponsor the sale of products made by the blind, but encourages individuals to dispose of their merchandise in their own community. The home teacher is under the Merit System just as all other professional workers in the department.

The Service to the Blind provides rehabilitation services such as physical restoration, training and placement; operates a stand program; places talking book machines; handles public relations; and sponsors the home teaching program.

RADIO PLAYS FOR YOUNG PEOPLE

Teachers of dramatic art will welcome this collection of fifteen great stories adapted for royalty-free performance by Walter Hackett. The scripts are simple enough to be performed easily by school or home groups and the average playing time is about a half hour. The following stories are included: *The Man Without a Country, The Million-Pound Bank Note, The Canterville Ghost, The Necklace, A Tale of Two Cities, Rip Van Winkle, The Young Man with the Cream Tarts, The Spy, The Great Stone Face, The Laurence Boy* (from "Little Women"), *The Juggler, The Legend of Sleepy Hollow, My Double and How He Undid Me, The Sire de Malétroit's Door, The Christmas Carol.* The book may be purchased from Plays, Inc., 8 Arlington St., Boston 16, Mass.

THE RED FEATHER

During this month and next, twelve hundred and fifty campaigns will be going on in different parts of the country. Their objective is to raise $185,000,000 for health, welfare and recreation services.

It seems worthy of mention that in at least eighteen states—Alabama, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Texas, Utah, Washington and West Virginia—and in the District of Columbia, part of the funds raised will be used to benefit blind persons. Therefore, in those states particularly, personal interest in addition to a broader humanitarian interest, prompts blind persons and workers with the blind to take cognizance of the importance of this great movement.

The National Bureau of Standards has designed and made a model of an improved talking book machine. This model was demonstrated to the satisfaction of Library of Congress officials recently. Improvements should be incorporated in the machines being used by the blind in the near future. This is but one of several Bureau of Standards research projects aimed at furthering the Library's national program for the blind.

Dr. Clarence Hawkes, of Hadley, Mass., the blind naturalist and poet, and an octogenarian, at the Eagles state convention held at Northampton in June, was honored by the presentation of a state aerie civic service award for his assistance in youth guidance, humanitarianism, and other social endeavors.

BOOK REVIEW

BLINDNESS: MODERN APPROACHES TO THE UNSEEN ENVIRONMENT. Edited by Paul A. Zahl. Princeton, New Jersey: University Press. 576 pp. $7.50

The appearance of this comprehensive volume is timely, in view of the growing and broadening interest in the problems associated with blindness. The book is divided into seven parts as follows: History and Welfare; Education and Psychology; Vocational Considerations; The Military Blinded; Time-Tested Boons to the Blind; Exploration of New Technological Horizons; and Ophthalmological Factors. The thirty-four chapters comprising the seven parts have been contributed by thirty-one of the most competent men and women working in the field of blindness.

The first four chapters of part I trace the historical development of services for the blind in the United States, Canada, Great Britain, and continental Europe. The discussion of the national aspects of the problems of blindness makes it possible to evaluate existing programs with reference to their adequacy in meeting the present and future needs of the blind in each country. In the final chapter of this section, Dr. Philip Platt calls attention to the basic facts common to the blind in all countries. He suggests measures to be taken in dealing with the problems of the aged blind, in providing for the use of leisure time, and in providing rehabilitative work among the unemployable blind. He concludes by outlining the responsibilities of official and voluntary agencies for the blind.

Part II deals with the educational and psychological aspects of blindness. This section will be of great interest to the blind reader and has especial value for those who have responsibility for educating the blind. Dr. Kathryn Maxfield, in the opening chapter, shows her knowledge of and deep interest in the problems of the blind infant and preschool child. With real sensitiveness for the problem created in the family when a blind infant is born into it, she emphasizes the magnitude of the problem in terms of incidence and cause. She describes the nature and effectiveness of programs which have been developed to assist families in understanding and handling blind children and to provide educational and social services for them. Further, she points out the great need for more knowledge about the causes and prevention of blindness in infants, and for augmenting the numbers of existing personnel trained to assist the parents of blind children.

In the next chapter, Dr. Berthold Lowenfeld discusses in his characteristically concise style the psychological foundation of special methods in teaching blind children. His contribution will be of greatest value to teachers of the blind who want to gain insight into the basic needs of the blind and into educational methods appropriate for meeting these needs. Dr. Lowenfeld distinguishes between four types of blindness: total blindness, congenital or acquired before five years of age; total blindness, acquired after five years of age; partial blindness, congenital; and partial blindness, acquired. He emphasizes the importance of this distinction by pointing out that the difference in the amount of workable visual imagery which the individuals in each of these catagories have, determines the extent of the limitations resulting from the visual handicap. He explains the three major

limitations which blindness imposes upon the cognitive (knowledge-getting) functions of children and demonstrates their practical effects upon the behavior of the blind child. He subsequently discusses the basic principles in the adaptation of teaching methods to the needs of the blind.

George Meyer has made an important contribution to this section in his chapter on the education of blind children in the public schools. He reviews the experience of Oregon and of New Jersey in providing diagnostic service to blind children so that as many as possible may be educated in the public school system. He concludes with a strong plea for the day school movement, pointing out that it is not only beneficial to the blind child but that daily contact of blind and sighted children in the school room helps to develop tolerant attitudes in the sighted.

A penetrating discussion of the need and value of home teaching and casework with the blind is presented by Stella Plants. After describing the influence of the family upon the personality of the developing child and the need for home teaching for the blind and for their families, she defines the characteristics of the ideal teacher and of an adequate program for organizations serving the blind. Her chapter concludes with a series of case studies which will be of value to those workers engaged in home teaching and to those who are in professional training courses.

Without the long years of intensive research work on measuring the intelligence of the blind, which is reported by Dr. Samuel P. Hayes in this section, little at present would be known regarding the intellectual equipment of the blind. In his chapter, Dr. Hayes has included research data which will serve as invaluable source material for those interested in measuring the intelligence of the blind or in developing new instruments of measurement.

In the final chapter of part II, Dr. Thomas Cutsforth discusses the factors of personality and social adjustment among the blind. He attacks in a vigorous, forthright style many of the long-standing and traditional practices employed in dealing with the blind. He believes that to postulate a special psychology of the blind is only to confuse the issue. With many others, Dr. Cutsforth shares the belief that most of the undesirable personality characteristics developed by the blind individual "have their origin not in the physical condition, but in the impact of the individual upon society and its attitudes." He discusses the various behavior patterns which develop and explains the bases for these in the environmental situations of the blind in the sighted world. However, he deplores the segregation of the blind in special schools as therapeutically unhygienic.

Part III is concerned with vocational considerations. Dr. Donald Dabelstein discusses at length, in the opening chapter of this section, the vocational rehabilitation of the blind, especially as it is provided for through the federal-state program. Dr. Dabelstein evaluates the importance of rehabilitation from the point of view of the individual, the employer and society at large.

In describing the problems of the blind in industry, Peter Salmon draws from his own long experience in the employment of the blind in special workshops and points out the needs and techniques for evaluating the abilities and capacities of the blind worker and for bringing about his adjustment on the job. Moreover, he enumerates a series of principles for the sound placement of the blind in competitive industrial employment. In another chapter of this section, Mr. Salmon discusses the problems of employment of the deaf-blind, particularly as they are met and provided for in the program of the Industrial Home for the Blind, of which he is executive director.

The final chapters of this section, contributed by Helga Lende and Dr. Clifford

Witcher, are of especial value to blind individuals seeking to determine their own vocational careers and to counselors who are engaged in assisting the blind in planning their occupational futures. Miss Lende reviews the professional opportunities for the blind in agencies for the blind and in competition with seeing individuals. She discusses specific vocations in such areas as law, teaching, insurance, divinity, physiotherapy, music, osteopathy, medicine, psychology, professional writing, social work, and library work. Her report is of particular value because, based as it is on a survey of blind individuals employed in these various fields, it is realistic and documented by many examples. Dr. Witcher has evaluated laboratory work for the blind. He was particularly well prepared to write this chapter, because despite his blindness he was serving as research engineer for the American Foundation for the Blind. He makes a plea for schools to provide more laboratory courses for blind students. He supports his contention that laboratory and research work is a realistic goal for the blind by describing individuals who have already "broken barriers" of existing negative tradition. He also offers a number of suggestions of which the blind student planning to take laboratory work should become cognizant.

One of the most valuable sections of the volume as it relates to future planning is part IV, which is devoted to the military blind. Interest in blinded veterans has given impetus to the development of new and significant rehabilitation programs. These programs, together with a description of new techniques and an evaluation of the outcomes, constitute a new body of information important to the planning of future programs and services for the blind. Lloyd Greenwood has written the first chapter in this section, "The Blinded Veteran." The importance of his chapter lies in the fact that, like Hector Chevigny, he lost his vision suddenly during the last war and he, like Chevigny, has also introspected on many aspects of this experience. It is from such documents that the blind may take courage and find guidance, and to them that workers with the blind or the research investigator may turn for first-hand knowledge of the significance of the loss of vision to the individual.

Other chapters regarding the military blind have been contributed by Captain Alan Blackburn, Dr. Merle Frampton, and Sir Ian Fraser. Captain Blackburn presents a discussion of the Army blind in the United States. Dr. Frampton reviews the rehabilitation procedures in the Navy, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard. Sir Ian Fraser offers a similar report on the service war-blinded in Great Britain. Because all three of these programs were designed to bring about maximum rehabilitation of the war-blinded in a minimum amount of time, the recording and evaluation of this experience is of utmost importance to civilian rehabilitation workers and to the planning of state and national programs of service for the blind. It is from these programs that final evidence as to the desirability of reorientation centers for the newly blinded must be sought. In addition, these chapters clearly indicate the need for research and point out the research potentialities of well-planned programs.

Time-tested boons to the blind are described in part V of the book. In the opening chapter, "Avenues of Communication," Dr. Gabriel Farrell reviews the types of sensory aids which have been developed in the past to assist the blind to overcome the handicap of lack of vision. His contribution represents a valuable source of historical information with respect to the development of various methods of communication, such as embossed type, braille and other varieties of tactile print, and braille writing. A significant portion of his chapter is devoted to the problems of the partially sighted.

Other chapters in this section are presented by Dr. Robert Irwin, who describes the development of the talking-book method

of reading; by Richard Hoover, who evaluates the cane as a travel aid for the blind and makes recommendations for its future development; and by W. H. Ebeling, who describes the work of the Seeing Eye organization. The last chapter in this section has been contributed by Hector Chevigny and is entitled "A User's View of the Guide Dog as a Travel Aid." Consistently objective in his evaluation, Mr. Chevigny presents a very thoughtful discussion of this means of travel orientation.

The first two chapters in part VI—Exploration of New Technological Horizons—will be of particular interest to the blind reader. In the first, Charles Ritter has recounted the history of the development of some devices for the blind and has succinctly evaluated those which are still in use or which are susceptible of further development. He describes, in practical terms, various aids useful in communication (such as writing devices, recording machines, and records), in arithmetic and mathematical computation, in making accurate measurements, and in daily living. On the latter category, he describes methods of meeting the needs of daily comfortable living; such as shaving, identifying coins, selecting clothing, applying cosmetics, sewing, cooking, cane travel and recreation. Further, he indicates some of the special adaptations of equipment for use by the blind in industry, agriculture, and professional and clerical jobs. A special section of the chapter is devoted to the needs of the multiple-handicapped blind. Mr. Ritter does not advocate that the blind should develop complete dependency on aids, but he does believe that they and their teachers should exploit all such devices for whatever assistance they may afford.

The second chapter in this section is of particular value to those who are using or who wish information regarding the practical value of a recording machine. Mr. Meyer has illustrated the value of recording as a tool in school work, business, professional work, and leisure-time pursuits. He discusses at length the various types of recorders available in relation to initial cost and operational expense.

The remaining six chapters of this section are devoted to reporting upon the research sponsored by the Committee on Sensory Devices, which has promoted the invention and development of sensory aids for the blind. The committee undertook to develop four lines of research: (1) devices for reading ordinary print by the totally blind; (2) a guidance device for ranging and obstacle finding; (3) optical magnifiers to aid persons of limited visual acuity, and (4) improvement of the "visagraph," a machine for the production of enlarged embossed images of printed material. These chapters will be of passing interest to the casual blind reader, but they represent an important record of the research work of able scientists on a group of significant problems. The material is technical, as it should be, and will be of inestimable value to those investigators who undertake further explorations of the possibilities of sensory aids for the blind. The work of the committee was interrupted before it was able to bring to a satisfactory conclusion any one of its four lines of research, but the contributions to methodology, identification of significant problems, and evaluation of the need and the direction of further research makes its contributions among the most significant to the future welfare of the blind.

The volume concludes with part VII, which is devoted to the ophthalmological factors of blindness. This section contains only one chapter,"The Causes of Blindness," by Dr. James N. Greear, Jr. Dr. Greear cites the lack of uniformity in definition and classification which has prevailed with respect to blindness and its causes. However, approving the classification system recommended by the Committee on Statistics of the Blind, he describes the causes of blindness in terms of etiological and topographical factors. His

chapter closes with an enumeration of the causes of blindness among American military personnel during World Wars I and II.

This book, designed to compile in one volume much of the existing knowledge regarding the history, methods, and status of work with the blind, will serve as an invaluable reference work for established as well as new workers in the field. It is so comprehensive in coverage that it will permit them to see the total scope of the field in easy perspective. Although the most important single need today in work with the blind is for more adequate and comprehensive research programs, little emphasis is given to this aspect of the work except in those chapters reporting on technical problems. Thoughtful reading of the other chapters will make obvious the need for objective data upon which to base future planning relative to the welfare of the blind.

Although the book deals with some problems in a technical manner, many of the chapters will be of great interest to the general blind reader. It is recommended as a "must" for all lay and professional workers with the blind.

—WILMA DONAHUE

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and
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FOUNDATION NOTES

Miss Georgie Lee Abel, who was presently coordinator of courses for workers with the adult blind at the Overbrook School for the Blind, has been appointed a Consultant in Education for the Foundation. Miss Abel received the B.S. and M.A. degrees from the George Peabody College for Teachers in Nashville, Tennessee. She formerly taught English and did educational testing at the Tennessee School for the Blind and the Idaho School for the Blind. Following this she became principal of the Iowa School for the Blind, from which she went to Overbrook. In her new position she will answer many calls that come in for consultation and advice on methods of teaching and counseling the young blind, and will keep the Foundation informed on research in her field.

Miss Diva Agostinelli has joined our professional staff as assistant librarian. Miss Agostinelli is a native of Jessup, Pennsylvania. She received her B.A. degree from Temple University and her M.S. degree in library science from Columbia University. She comes to the Foundation from the Brooklyn Public Library where she held the position of assistant branch librarian.

Miss Evelyn C. McKay and Miss Catherine R. Drew have resigned their positions with the Foundation as director of social research and social research assistant respectively, and have instituted a private consultant service on work with the blind under the name of McKay Associates.

September 5th was the twenty-fifth anniversary of Miss Ruth Wilcox's coming to the Foundation. She is presently executive assistant of the American Foundation for Overseas Blind.

NOTES FROM THE FOUNDATION LIBRARY

The items mentioned on this page may be borrowed without charge from the Reference Lending Library of the American Foundation for the Blind

The American Biology Teacher for April, 1950 contains the article, "Methods of Teaching Biology to Blind Students with the Seeing" by Arthur H. Bryan. "Success in teaching the blind will not be determined by what the teacher is able to do, but by what the blind student is able to learn and by what actual work he is able to perform in spite of the fact that one of his principal senses is lacking. In other words, the blind student should be 'the doer of the act' all the way through his course in biology and nature study."

"Blind Farmer" by Grant Cannon is found in the *Farm Quarterly* for Summer, 1950. It is stated that there are farmers, and good ones, who are blind. These men can do their own milking, judge cattle, and cull their own poultry. They are accomplished in the small crafts of farming, such as carpentry, electric wiring and repair, plumbing and metal work; are competent farm managers, and can even plough a straight furrow when necessary. This article gives the life story of three such men.

"Teaching the Visually Handicapped" by Winifred Hathaway and Berthold Lowenfeld is an offprint from the *Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education,* Part II, 1950. "The first concern of all professional and lay groups and individuals is to prevent blindness and other visual impairment by finding the causes—diseases, malformations, accidents, etc.—and by discovering and putting into effect ways and means of eliminating them. The second responsibility is to make adequate provisions for those already affected."

"Night Fighters Versus Impossible, Inc.," by A. E. Septinelli is found in the *Journal of Rehabilitation* for March-April, 1950. This discussion deals specifically with some phases and techniques of placement, and comments briefly on counseling, physical restoration and training. It reports that in the state of California particular emphasis is placed on the feasibility of employing blind placement officers.

"Serving the Homebound Blind" by Julia Lawson is included in the *Journal of Rehabilitation* for May-June, 1950. "Home Industries and Home Teacher Service in the rehabilitation of the visually handicapped is a highly controversial subject, because agencies have only recently begun to openly discuss rehabilitation at the homebound level."

The International Roller Skating Guide, 1949-1950 Edition, includes the article, "The Blind Can Roller Skate" by Eber L. Palmer. "The New York State School for the Blind, at Batavia, New York, has built an indoor roller skating rink on its campus and has plans drawn for the construction of a large outdoor roller skating oval for the use of the students. Even without the oval, students use the campus sidewalks for outdoor skating."

"Blind Children Look at Us. . ." by Walter Duckat is found in *Today's Health* for April, 1950. "How do young children born sightless or those who have lost their sight react to their handicap? What is their concept of the dark world surrounding them? What do they think of sighted people, who are only disembodied voices or, at best, vague, shadowy figures? . . . I asked the students at the New York Institute for the Education of the Blind to express their views on a number of significant problems."

THE SUGGESTION BOX

By the Special Services Department

LARGE TYPE TYPEWRITERS. There are on hand two portable Remington typewriters fitted with "Magna Type" or what is more commonly known as "Bulletin Type." This extra large type is readily legible to those with the right kind of visual acuity near the 20/200 range. These are new machines offered at the special price of $75.00, F.O.B., New York.

CARVIT TOOL. Shops and home craftsmen may be interested in this ingenious tool which duplicates in wood or plastic any carving or bas-relief. With it, ash trays, book ends, busts, plaques, name plates, jewel and cigarette boxes, and so on, can be reproduced. When an index attachment is employed, it is also possible to duplicate statuettes, chessmen, and other three-dimensional objects.

A tracer pin is mounted on an arm which can be raised and lowered and moved freely from side to side. This arm is rigidly attached to another arm on which is mounted a high speed motor with a carving tool. The carving tool is carried along with the tracer pin, automatically reproducing the model on the block. Ingenious crafstmen in some localities might find salable items which could be traced out with this tool.

The motor is a 1/16 horsepower, universal 115 volt, AC or DC fan cooled model with a speed of 19,000 revolutions a minute. Ball-bearing construction. Chuck is a 3/16 inch capacity, collet type, mounted on motor shaft. The carving area is 9 by 10 inches for one setting or 9 by 20 inches for two settings. Any length of flat work (carved mouldings, etc.,) can be accommodated. Overall dimensions 13 inches high, 24 inches long, and 24 inches deep.

Standard equipment includes one 3/16 inch cutter, one 1/16 inch cutter, four clamps with screws, washers and nuts for fastening work and model to table, two chuck wrenches, a double end tracer pin and complete inkprint instructions. East of the Rocky Mountains, the price is $47.25, F.O.B., Racine, Wisconsin. The price is slightly higher in the west.

An index attachment is necessary for carving round work, statuettes, etc. This consists of two face plates coupled so as to move in unison. This is to be mounted in front of the Carvit Tool so as to hold the round model horizontally, facing the machine. A block of wood or plastic is similarly mounted on the other face plate. Model and work revolve to twelve work positions. Work is traced in each index position, the same as for flat work. Takes up to 5 inch diameter by 8 inches long. Equipment includes 1/4 inch tracer pin, mounting equipment and inkprint instructions. The price is $6.82, F.O.B., Racine, Wisconsin. Slightly higher in the west.

Carvit cutters are available in three sizes: 3/16", 1/16", 1/32", giving increasingly fine detail. They are 60¢ each, F.O.B., Racine.

A flexible shaft is also available to fit the Carvit Tool. This wholesales at an F.O.B. price of $5.95. Hand pieces to fit range in price from $2.75 to $10.60. A variety of grinding wheels, a steel cutter, wire brushes, rag and felt buffs are available to fit these handpieces.

DROPPED ITEMS. In order to keep the catalog from getting out-of-bounds, it has been decided to drop some of the items which, since they were first listed, have become more generally available. Since, in most instances, there are still a few on hand, they are being

listed here so that those who do not have immediate interest in them will not order at a later date:

Half-Teaspoon Liquid Measures	$ .65
Speedy-Chef Egg Beaters	1.25
Flip-Knife	1.65
X-acto Pocket Knife	.80
Change-a-Blade Scissors	2.00
Electric Heating Pads	5.50
Drying Beads	.50
Key Keeper	.60
Morocco Wallet (3-pocket billfold)	3.25
Pinch Purse (Ladies')	4.00
Keep-Safe Purse (Ladies')	2.75

Operations Research. From time to time requests have appeared in this column for suggestions on techniques and ways of doing things. And from time to time excellent suggestions have been received in various fields. Readers may be interested to learn that this sort of thing has now been assigned a specific title at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology—Operations Research.

Blind people, more than most, are experts in Operations Research. This kind of research is concerned with how to simplify operations. An example given in a recent broadcast concerned dishwashing in the army. It was observed that there was always a jam in the rinsing and drying area. The bottleneck was removed simply by providing three rinsing and drying stations for every two washing areas.

The trouble in our field is that every time a man solves an Operations Research problem he forgets he ever had the problem. As this is being written a postage meter company representative called to ask how a blind person could operate their meters. The answer is no doubt going to be fairly simple. But it is these simple things, lumped together, that sometimes make the difference between success and failure. It is hoped that readers will continue to notice when they have met and solved a new problem, so that they can send in their solution before they forget that the problem ever came up. A recently blinded woman was dubious about doing housework; ironing, in particular, had her worried. A home teacher spent a few minutes showing her a technique to avoid burning herself, and with this slight help she proceeded to iron a house dress. Later, upon entering training for a guide dog, she was amazed to learn that she alone of seven women in training did her own ironing.

Popular Music. Most publishers of popular music are granting permission to have Connie Anderson hand transcribe popular music, using his system of notation. Permission has been requested for two or three hundred titles. By the time this appears, there is a possibility that the new service can have been put into effect. Interested readers may write this department.

Price Cuts. The following new prices are now in effect.

Select O Clock . . . Postpaid	$11.00
30 and 60 Minute Timers, with Switch	$ 4.50
Bottoms Up . . . Postpaid	$ 1.00
Carrom Bagatelle, Brailled	$10.00
Mirro-Matic 6 Qt. Pressure Pan	$12.75
Mirro-Matic 8 Qt. Pressure Pan	$13.75
Plasticanisters with Marked Measuring Cup	$ 2.50
Adding Machine . . . Postpaid	$ 7.50
Bathroom Scale, F.O.B. New York	$11.00
Diabetic Diet Scale	$ 7.50
Grocer's Scale, F.O.B. New York	$44.00
Liquid Thermometers . . . 0-220 Degrees	$ 5.50
. . . Oven 0-150 Degrees	$ 5.00
Sapphire Cutting Style, Standard or Microgroove	$ 3.00
Recording Unit, without Amplifier, etc. Base Unit Only, F.O.B. New York	$16.00
Penscope Pocket Telescope	$ 6.50

BULLETIN BOARD

New York Public Library, Library for the Blind—A new printed catalogue listing all books published in braille from 1931 through 1948 is now available to sightless readers free of charge. This 163-page catalogue is the first complete list of braille works to be issued since 1938. It contains more than 2,500 titles, arranged according to subject matter, together with a 54-page index. All of the books listed may be borrowed from the library. The new publication is a companion to the printed catalogue of Talking Books issued recently by the Library of Congress. All books recorded up to and including 1948 are contained in this list, which also is available to blind readers, free of charge.

New York Association for the Blind—The Lighthouse Nursery School began its seventeenth year September 13, with a registration of fifteen blind children from three to six years old. While the present Lighthouse building is being remodeled, temporary headquarters will be located at the Temple Emanu-el, 1 East 65th Street. Miss Leah Katz, director of the school, will divide the children into two age groups. She is assisted by four nursery school teachers. The children are brought to the school each morning at 10 o'clock from the three boroughs of New York City—Manhattan, the Bronx and Queens—and return to their homes at 3:30 p.m. The school is one of twenty-eight free services administered by the direct services department of the New York Association for the Blind. The cost of one year's expenses for each blind child amounts to $600.

Winners of the Searchlight Short Story Contest sponsored by Carl Van Doren and the Lighthouse for blind school students throughout the country, were Carl Reynolds, a student at Perkins Institution, for his story, "A Month at Camp Waldron;" Bertha Napier, a 12-year-old girl attending the Florida School for the Deaf and Blind; and Kathleen Delahunty who attends the New York Institute for the Education of the Blind. The three prize stories will appear in the braille magazine, *The Searchlight.*

South Dakota School for the Blind—The ninth biennial convention of the South Dakota Association of Workers for the Blind met in Gary on May 29, 30, and 31. The theme of the convention was "Better and More Profitable Occupations for the Blind." Talks were given by Howard Hanson, Brookings; Paul West of the Department of Public Welfare, Pierre; Mrs. Leslie Gray of the Minnesota Society for the Prevention of Blindness, and several others. On Tuesday evening a banquet was served commemorating fifty years of service by the School for the Blind. Howard H. Hanson was reelected president; Arnold Greber, vice-president; Priscilla Griepp, secretary-treasurer; and Mrs. Flavia Throm, corresponding secretary.

National Society for the Prevention of Blindness—Three local prevention of blindness organizations have become affiliated with the National Society. They are: the Detroit Society for the Prevention of Blindness; the Pittsburgh Branch of the Pennsylvania Association for the Blind; and the District of Columbia Society for the Prevention of Blindness. Two new vice-presidents of the Society have been named: Professor Ira V. Hiscock, chairman of the department of public health at Yale University; and Dr. William L. Benedict, of the Mayo Clinic, Rochester, Minnesota.

Industrial home for the Blind—Six of Brooklyn's blind tots, two boys and four girls, are now attending that borough's first nursery school for blind children, operated under the auspices of the Industrial Home at its Light Buoy Club. The nursery school is under the direction of Miss Gertrude Van den Broek, for thirteen years supervisor of preschool blind service of the New York State Commission for the Blind, who has been loaned to the Industrial Home for the purpose of organizing this school. Classes are being held weekday mornings from 9:00 to 12:00. Working with Miss Van den Broek is Mrs. Inge Kessler, engaged as a group teacher. It is estimated that there are approximately thirty blind children of preschool age in Brooklyn, ranging from infancy to seven years.